CHRONIC TOXICITY SUMMARY

CHLOROPICRIN

(trichloronitromethane; nitrochloroform; nitrochloromethane)

CAS Registry Number: 76-06-2

I. Chronic Toxicity Summary

Inhalation reference exposure level

Critical effect(s)

Hazard index target(s)

0.4 μ g/m³ (0.05 ppb)

Nasal rhinitis and bronchiectasis in mice

Respiratory system

II. Chemical Property Summary (from HSDB (1996) except as noted)

Description Colorless to faint yellow liquid

Molecular formulaCCl3NO2Molecular weight164.4 g/molBoiling point112°C

Melting point -64°C (CRC, 1994)

Vapor pressure 5.7 torr @ 0°C (Fries and West, 1921);

3.2 kPa (24 torr) @ 25°C (Tomlin, 1994)

Solubility 1.6 g/L water @ 25°C; 2.272 g/L water @ 0°C

1.9 g/L water @ 20°C; miscible with benzene, ethanol, carbon disulfide, ether, carbon tetrachloride, acetone, methanol, acetic acid

Conversion factor 6.72 µg/m³ per ppb at 25°C

III. Major Uses and Sources

Chloropicrin is used primarily as a preplant soil fumigant against insects and fungi; it also kills weed and grass seeds when applied to soil. Chloropicrin is occasionally used as a fumigant in grain elevators and storage bins (HSDB, 1996). Chloropicrin is used as an indicator chemical in other fumigants such as methyl bromide because of its potent irritant properties. Chloropicrin was used in World War I as a chemical warfare agent because of its potent activity as a lachrymator. Chloropicrin has a minor use in the chemical synthesis of methyl violet. Chloropicrin can also form in drinking water as a result of chlorination processes (Duguet *et al.*, 1985; Merlet *et al.*, 1985). The annual statewide industrial emissions from facilities reporting under the Air Toxics Hot Spots Act in California based on the most recent inventory were estimated to be 1507 pounds of chloropicrin (CARB, 2000). This does not include emissions from its major use as a preplant soil fumigant, either alone or in combination with other fumigants, because agricultural field applications are not covered under the Air Toxics Hot Spots

program. Approximately 3,630,000 lbs. of chloropicrin were used in agriculture in California in 1999 (DPR, 2000).

IV. Effects of Human Exposure

No studies are available which describe toxic effects to humans from chronic exposure to chloropicrin. Human exposures to concentrations less than 1 ppm for very short periods of time are extremely irritating (ACGIH, 1992; Fries and West, 1921). The threshold of odor detection in humans is approximately 1 ppm (ACGIH, 1992).

V. Effects of Animal Exposure

Burleigh-Flayer and Benson (1995) conducted a chronic inhalation bioassay with CD rats (50-60 per sex per dose) exposed discontinuously to 0 (air), 0.1, 0.5, or 1.0 ppm 99.6% pure chloropicrin vapor 6 hours/day for 5 consecutive days/week over 107 weeks. Clinical signs (such as hypoactivity and decreased startle response) were increased in both sexes, primarily at 1.0 ppm. Increased mortality was noted in males at 0.5 and 1 ppm and in females at 1 ppm. Absolute and relative increased lung and liver weights and increased nasal rhinitis were reported in both sexes at the 1 ppm level. However, no effects were seen at 0.1 ppm. Thus this study yielded a NOAEL of 0.1 ppm (0.67 mg/m³) for chronic non-cancer effects in rats.

Results from chronic inhalation of chloropicrin in rats (Burleigh-Flayer and Benson, 1995)

					Mean
Chloropicrin	Lung wt., m	Lung wt., f	Rhinitis, m	Rhinitis, f	survival, m
0	2.086 g	1.574 g	20/50	18/50	696 d
0.1 ppm	2.089 g	1.464 g	24/50	17/50	669 d
0.5 ppm	2.202 g	1.460 g	21/50	26/50	672 d*
1.0 ppm	2.448 g	1.633 g	35/50**	23/50	647 d**

^{*}p<0.05; **p<0.01

A similar study in mice (Burleigh-Flayer *et al.*, 1995) resulted in the same NOAEL. CD-1 mice (50/sex/dose) were exposed to chloropicrin (99.6% pure) vapor at 0 (air), 0.1, 0.5, or 1.0 ppm for 6 hours/day, 5 days/week for at least 78 weeks. Body weights and body weight gains were significantly decreased in both sexes at ≥ 0.5 ppm. Food consumption was decreased in males at 1.0 ppm and in females at ≥ 0.5 ppm. Absolute and relative lung weights were increased in a dose-related manner in both sexes at ≥ 0.5 ppm. Changes in pathology observed macroscopically in the 1.0 ppm males included increased numbers of lung nodules and increased numbers of kidney cysts. In females lung masses and kidney cysts were seen at 0.5 ppm. Microscopic pathology changes included increased nasal cavity lesions (including serous exudate, hyaline epithelial inclusions, rhinitis, olfactory and epithelial atrophy) and lung lesions (including alveolar protein deposits, alveolar histiocytosis, hemorrhage, peribronchiolar lymphocytic infiltrate, bronchiectasis, bronchial submucosal fibrosis, peribronchiolar smooth muscle hyperplasia), in addition to kidney cysts at ≥ 0.5 ppm (CDPR, 2000).

Results from chronic inhalation of chloropicrin in mice (Burleigh-Flayer et al., 1995)

Chloropicrin	Rhinitis, m	Rhinitis, f	Bronchiectasis, m	Bronchiectasis, f	
0	6/50	3/50	0/50	0/50	
0.1 ppm	7/50	6/50	3/50	5/50	
0.5 ppm	17/50**	18/50**	28/50**	28/50**	
1.0 ppm	35/50**	32/50**	41/50**	44/50**	

^{**}p<0.01

Yoshida *et al.* (1987) exposed groups of 12 male Fischer 344 rats intermittently to 0, 0.37, 0.67, 1.58, or 2.93 ppm chloropicrin vapor 6 h/day, 5 days/week for 13 weeks. Mean body weights were reduced in the highest 2 exposure groups, and red blood cell count, hematocrit, and hemoglobin concentration were significantly increased in the 2.93 ppm group. The treatment-related histological lesions reported were degeneration and necrosis of the bronchial and bronchiolar epithelia at 2.93 ppm and hypertrophy of these epithelia at 1.58 ppm. Thus the primary target organ was the respiratory tract and the subchronic NOAEL was 0.67 ppm (4.5 mg/m³). (Eyelid closure and decrease in motor activity were seen in all exposure groups only during exposure. No morphological changes were seen at 0.67 ppm, so the authors deemed the behavior changes minor and not toxicologically important.)

Male Swiss-Webster mice (group numbers ranging from 16-24) were exposed by inhalation to a single level of different sensory irritants including chloropicrin for 6 hours/day for 5 days; unexposed control groups had 8-10 mice (Buckley *et al.*, 1984). The exposure level for chloropicrin was 7.9 ppm, which approximated the level sufficient to cause a 50% decrease in respiratory rate in mice (RD₅₀) (Kane *et al.*, 1979). Half the exposed mice and half the control animals were terminated immediately after the exposures and the other half 72 hours after the last exposure. All were examined for respiratory tract lesions. Body weights of chloropicrin exposed animals were reduced 10-25% below controls, but increased to normal levels during the recovery period. Nasal exudate and distention of the abdomen were observed. "Moderate" lesions, characterized by exfoliation, erosion, ulceration, or necrosis, were observed in the respiratory and olfactory epithelium, and minimal inflammation and squamous metaplasia were observed in the respiratory tract was described as "fibrosing peribronchitis and peribronchiolitis". Exfoliation, hyperplasia, and squamous metaplasia were also noted.

Condie *et al.* (1994) conducted a study of the toxicity of chloropicrin by oral exposure in Sprague-Dawley rats. Ten and ninety-day studies were conducted by dosing animals daily with chloropicrin in vehicle (corn oil) at a volume of 1 ml/kg. Groups of 10 rats/sex/group were dosed with 0, 10, 20, 40, and 80 mg/kg for the 10-day study and with 0, 2, 8, and 32 mg/kg for the 90-day study. Parameters examined included mortality, body weight, food and water consumption, hematology, serum clinical chemistry, and gross pathology and histology of organs. Only the high-dose group and the control group animals from the 90-day study were examined histopathologically. In the 90-day study, 6 males and 2 females in the 32 mg/kg dose group and 1 male and 3 females in the 8 mg/kg dose group died before the scheduled termination time. The authors noted signs of pulmonary complications (inflammation and congestion) in the dead animals. Previously, the animals had shown signs of respiratory distress, including wheezing and dyspnea. The deaths were considered to be exposure related and most likely due

to aspiration of chloropicrin. Among the survivors, mean body weight, hemoglobin levels, and hematocrits were significantly reduced in males in the 32 mg/kg dose group. Absolute thymus weights were reduced in female rats at 32 mg/kg, and female rats in the 8 mg/kg dose group showed decreased white blood cell count. Most animals in the 32 mg/kg dose group (>60%) showed histopathological changes in the forestomach including chronic inflammation, acantholysis, and hyperkeratosis. The authors considered the NOAEL to be 8 mg/kg/day.

VI. Derivation of Chronic Reference Exposure Level (REL)

Study Burleigh-Flayer and Benson (1995)
Study population CD-1 mice (60 per sex per dose)

Exposure method Discontinuous inhalation (0, 0.1, 0.5 or 1.0 ppm)

Critical effects Nasal rhinitis; bronchiectasis

LOAEL0.5 ppmNOAEL0.1 ppm

Exposure continuity 6 hours/day, 5 days/week

Exposure duration 107 weeks BMC_{05} 0.042 ppm

Average experimental exposure

0.0075 ppm at the BMC₀₅ ($0.042 \times 6/24 \times 5/7$)

Human equivalent concentration 0.0016 ppm at the BMC₀₅ (gas with

extrathoracic respiratory effects, RGDR = 0.21 based on MV = 0.044 L/min and SA(ET) = 3

cm²)

LOAEL uncertainty factor not needed in the BMC approach

Subchronic uncertainty factor 1

Interspecies uncertainty factor 3 (since RGDR adjustment was made)

Intraspecies uncertainty factor 10 Cumulative uncertainty factor 30

Inhalation reference exposure level $0.05 \text{ ppb} (0.4 \, \mu\text{g/m}^3)$

The data on bronchiecstasis incidence in male and female mice were combined and the chronic REL for chloropicrin was developed using the BMC approach. Of the several models tested, the Gamma MultiHit Model gave the best fit to the combined bronchiecstasis data (p = 0.9750). The MLE₀₅ was 0.070 ppm and the BMC₀₅ was 0.042 ppm. Use of time extrapolation to equivalent continuous exposure, an RGDR adjustment for the area of the respiratory tract affected, and a total uncertainty factor of 30 resulted in a chronic REL of 0.05 ppb (0.4 μ g/m³).

The chronic study in mice (Burleigh-Flayer *et al.*, 1995) yielded the same NOAEL of 0.1 ppm as the chronic study in rats (Burleigh-Flayer and Benson, 1995). Use of the mouse data with the NOAEL/UF approach led to a cREL estimate of 0.1 ppb. Use of the rat data yielded a chronic REL estimate of 0.2 ppb by the NOAEL/UF approach.

As another comparison, the study of Yoshida *et al.* (1987) found a NOAEL in rats of 0.67 ppm for intermittent exposure for 13 weeks. This is equivalent to a continuous exposure of 120 ppb.

Use of an RGDR of 0.25 for rats and a total uncertainty factor of 100 (3 for subchronic, 3 for interspecies, and 10 for intraspecies) results in a REL estimate of 0.03 ppb $(0.2 \,\mu\text{g/m}^3)$.

VII. Data Strengths and Limitations for Development of the REL

Significant strengths in the REL for chloropicrin include the duration of exposure (lifetime) in the key study, the multiple dose study design with adequate sample sizes, and the demonstration of a NOAEL in rats and mice. Major areas of uncertainty are the lack of adequate human exposure data, limited reproductive toxicity data, and the appropriateness of time extrapolation of concentrations that cause irritative effects such as rhinitis.

VIII. Potential for Differential Impacts on Children's Health

Chloropicrin is a respiratory irritant. Respiratory irritants often have steep dose-response curves. Thus use of the human intraspecies factor of 10 should result in a REL that adequately protects children. Exacerbation of asthma, which has a more severe impact on children than on adults, is a known response to some respiratory irritants. However, there is no direct evidence in the literature to quantify such a response to chloropicrin, or to quantify a differential effect of chloropicrin on infants or children. We are currently evaluating our risk assessment methodologies, in particular the intraspecies uncertainty factor (UF_H), for adequacy in protecting infants and children. While we have not so far identified any indications that the currently used UF_H of 10 might be less than adequate to protect infants and children, this possibility should be considered in evaluating any exposure situation involving chronic exposures of infants or children to chloropicrin.

IX. References

ACGIH. 1992. American Conference of Governmental Industrial Hygienists, Inc. Documentation of the threshold limit values and biological exposure indices. Sixth edition. Cincinnati, OH: ACGIH.

Buckley LA, Jiang XZ, James RA, Morgan KT, and Barrow CS. 1984. Respiratory tract lesions induced by sensory irritants at the RD₅₀ concentration. Toxicol. Appl. Pharmacol. 74:417-429.

Burleigh-Flayer HD, and Benson CL. 1995. Chloropicrin: Vapor inhalation oncogenicity study in CD rats. Bushy Run Research Center, July 29, 1995.

Burleigh-Flayer HD, Kintigh WJ, and Benson CL. 1995. Chloropicrin: Vapor inhalation oncogenicity study in CD-1 mice. Bushy Run Research Center, April 20, 1995.

CDPR. 2000. California Department of Pesticide Regulation. Review of Burleigh-Flayer et al. (1995) Chloropicrin: Vapor inhalation oncogenicity study in CD-1 mice.

CARB. 2000. California Air Resources Board. California Emissions Inventory Development and Reporting System. (CEIDARS). Data from Data Base Year 1998. February 12, 2000.

CRC. 1994. CRC Handbook of Chemistry and Physics, 75th edition. Lide DR, ed. Boca Raton, FL: CRC Press Inc.

Condie LW, Daniel FB, Olson GR, and Robinson M. 1994. Ten and ninety-day toxicity studies of chloropicrin in Sprague-Dawley rats. Drug Chem. Toxicol. 17:125-137.

DPR. 2000. California Department of Pesticide Regulation. Summary of Pesticide Use Report Data – 1999. Sacramento: DPR.

Duguet JP, Tsutsumi Y, Bruchet A, and Mallevialle J. 1985. Chloropicrin in potable water: conditions of formation and production during treatment processes. In: Water Chlorination: Chemistry, Environmental Impact and Health Effects. Jolley RL, Bull RJ, Davis WP, Katz S, Roberts MH, and Jacobs VA. (eds.) Chelsea, MI: Lewis Publishers, pp. 1201-1213.

Fries AA, and West CJ. 1921. Chapter VIII. Chloropicrin. In: Chemical Warfare. First edition. New York, NY: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc.

HSDB. 1996. Hazardous Substances Data Bank. National Library of Medicine, Bethesda, Maryland (TOMES® CD-ROM Version). Denver, CO: Micromedex, Inc. (Edition expires 7/31/96).

Kane LE, Barrow CS, and Alarie Y. 1979. A short-term test to predict acceptable levels of exposure to airborne sensory irritants. Am. Ind. Hyg. Assoc. J. 40:207-229.

Merlet N, Thibaud H, and Dore M. 1985. Chloropicrin formation during oxidative treatments in the preparation of drinking water. Sci. Total Environ. 47:223-228.

Tomlin, C.D.S. (ed.). 1994. The Pesticide Manual - World Compendium. 10th ed. Surrey, UK: The British Crop Protection Council. p. 192.

Yoshida M, Ikeda T, Iwasaki M, Ikeda M, Harada T, Ebino K, Tsuda S and Shirasu. 1987. Subchronic inhalation toxicity of chloropicrin vapor in rats. J. Pesticide Sci. 12:673-681.